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ABSTRACT

Based on the idea that questioning designed to elicit and practice different language structures can promote language development, 10 questioning techniques are presented. They are designed to be used in the context of the whole language approach to instruction, to promote both language and thinking skills. The techniques are to be used as parents or teachers read a story with the child. They demonstrate the various stages of thought process and language development that students move through in both first and second languages. Answer options range from simple words to complex sentences. The techniques are presented as they might arise based on story information in the book. Questioning techniques include: "yes/no" questions; "or" questions; short answer elicitations; thought questions ("how or why"); series recall; "why/how" questions related to the child himself; recalling a series in correct order; retelling the story; and changing the story. Language structures targeted by each technique are noted. Suggestions are also offered for helping parents understand how the techniques can be useful to second language learners. (MSE)

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Parents, Teachers, and Students

Interactive Whole Language

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PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND STUDENTS INTERACTIVE WHOLE LANGUAGE

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Abstract

In a technological era, reading and critical thinking skills lay the foundation for future success. Parents and teachers can work together to help students develop comprehension and critical thinking skills. By using some simple questioning techniques, they can lay the foundation for helping the child develop language. Questioning techniques designed to elicit and practice different language structures promote language development in a natural, whole language approach.

Ten questioning techniques complete with the desired language structures to be elicited can be used in a whole language setting to promote language and thinking skills. These techniques are used as teachers and/or parents read a story with the child. They are not presented in a progressive manner from simple to complex, but as they might be asked based on the story information as it appears in the book. Reading stories and using the questioning techniques provide an excellent whole language setting contributing to the student's thought process, language development, and communication skills while building a bond between reader, writer, and student.

Introduction

In a technological era where most jobs are requiring higher thinking skills and reading abilities, it is essential that students learn from an early age to interact in situations which are conducive to developing these. Reading to or with children at all ages through a whole language approach while observing ten simple questioning techniques designed to elicit and practice different language structures can promote the necessary critical thinking skills needed for future reading and language competence.

In using stories, preferably good literature, the basic beliefs which make up the whole language philosophy are put into place. The students are able to proceed from getting the overall picture to discovering the specifics within the story. They are actively involved relating to the story, and there is an immediate meaning and purpose derived from the reading. Social interaction takes place as the questions focus on the exchange of ideas and feelings. Oral language is plentiful and when desired students may proceed to rewriting parts of the story, responding to it, or creating their own story. By engaging in a meaningful activity based on the students' interests and backgrounds and providing for active participation, the teacher helps the students develop a positive self-esteem as well as skills in oral and written language.

The ten questioning techniques demonstrate the various stages of thought process and language development which students move through in both their primary language and their second language. The options given in the possible

answers range from the simplest one word answer to the more complex sentence structures. There is a natural variety of sentence structures and tenses in the questions and answers which are easily practiced. Other tenses and structures can be included as the reading activity is extended.

The adult needs to keep in mind that when students respond incorrectly or with short answers, proper modeling should be provided in a non-threatening manner. Simply repeating the correct structure without identifying the mistake made by the students will suffice to expose them to the form needed. Repetition of the types of questions missed with active modeling will provide practice which will help master the concept.

It is important to point out that the questioning techniques to be presented do not constitute whole language instruction per se. They should be considered a small part of an instructional program which promotes language development and critical thinking skills. Therefore, in order to understand the questioning techniques that will follow, it will be necessary to first explain what whole language is not, followed by what it is. To fully appreciate whole language philosophy and how questioning techniques are part of this philosophy, a brief discussion of the roots of whole language is given and to assist in understanding questioning as a technique, a cursory review of the questioning literature is presented. The ten questioning techniques will follow, along with an explanation of the language structures/functions that they elicit. The last section will address some issues concerning the questioning techniques as used by parents and teachers of second language learners.

What Whole Language Is Not

"Whole language is not a method (or a package or a program)" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 39). "Whole language can't be packaged in a kit or bound between the covers of textbooks or workbooks" (Goodman, 1986, p. 63). "It is not an approach per se, though of course some kinds of activities can reasonably be characterized as whole language because they are consonant with this philosophy, while others are logically rejected by this philosophy" (Weaver, 1990, p. 3). "Though there are some instructional techniques that may be commonly found in whole language classrooms, no one technique or set of techniques makes up something called a 'whole language' method" (Rhodes & Shanklin, 1989). "So let us repeat: whole language is not a method. Nor are there any *essential* whole language methods. Some methods are easily made congruent with a whole language perspective" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 42).

What Whole Language Is

Goodman (1986) summarizes the essence of whole language in five points. 1) Whole language involves the whole learner in learning whole language in whole language contexts. Simply stated, this means that nothing, from the learner to the learning, is segmented. In order to foster whole language learning, the teacher must recognize the totality of the learning process as well as the wholeness of the learner. Nothing or no one is viewed as fragmented or discrete. Rather, the learner and the learning situation are seen as a whole. 2) "Whole

language assumes respect for the language, the learner, and for the teacher" (p.40). The child is accepted as is. He is not viewed as deficient in any way but rather as developing or emerging. Children are not divided into groups comprised of those who can and can't. Likewise, language is not divisible into listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Language is seen as an integration of these, as inclusive. Respect for the teacher means giving teachers responsibility for the instructional program. 3) The focus of whole language is on meaning. Language learning must be meaningful. When language learning occurs in artificial contexts, it loses its function or purpose and becomes meaningless. For the same reasons, oral language must occur in authentic speech contexts and literacy events, reading and writing, must be authentic. 4) Whole language recognizes that learners use language for different purposes and encourages them to risk making mistakes while acquiring and developing language, both oral and written. 5) "In a whole language classroom, all the varied functions of oral and written language are appropriate and encouraged" (p. 40).

Whole language views language, language development, literacy, and learning in very specific ways. These views are not exclusive to whole language philosophy but rather whole language embraces research from various disciplines, including cognitive psychology and learning theory, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropology, philosophy, and education. Whole language views language as: a social semiotic system (Halliday, 1978); a "supersystem composed of interdependent, inseparable subsystems" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 11); predictable (Smith, 1971) and possessing aesthetic qualities (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). Whole language recognizes the universals in language development and sees language learning as functional, natural and social (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). In other words, language is learned through use, not by imitation or practice. It occurs naturally and as a result of a need to interact socially, that is, with others. Whole language views literacy in much the same way as oral language. Literacy, reading and writing, develops through use, as a dynamic process where the learner discovers and uses language (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). Whole language sees learning as a social process (Vygotsky, 1978) best achieved through involvement (Freire, 1970) and as an outgrowth of the learner's interests and experimentations (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991).

The Roots of Whole Language

As mentioned previously, whole language is a philosophy that has been influenced by research findings from many disciplines. Whole language philosophy stems from a concept of learning which recognizes the active participation of the learner in deriving meaning as opposed to a passive, imitative role characterized by copying or repeating information. The transactional model supports the active concept of learning. Many of the beliefs attributed earlier to whole language are part of this model.

The basis of the transactional model is the cognitive/social model of learning reflected by the work of Vygotsky and Halliday cited previously. Thus, learning is seen as a social process through which meanings are created. As such, the learner is an active agent engaging in many interactions, taking risks,

and making errors. The individuality of the learner is acknowledged and, thus, failure does not exist (Weaver, 1991).

By contrast, the transmission model, rooted in the behaviorist model, views learning as a process of skill-building which moves from part-to-whole and simple to complex. Habit formation forms the core of learning and thus the teacher directs the teaching and controls the instructional program. Correct responses are valued while risk-taking and errors are discouraged and/or penalized (Weaver, 1991).

Whole Language Implications for the Classroom

Raines and Canady (1990) identify six key elements of whole language instruction derived from research in psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and emergent literacy. 1) Young children learn through an "immersion in language and print" (p. 10). The same way that children learn to speak through immersion in a *language environment*, they learn to develop their language through an interaction with adults who read and engage them in discussions. 2) In order for children to develop their language, they must be provided with opportunities and resources to use language. Books provide a *print environment* from which they can extend their language and begin to make sense of the printed word. 3) Communication needs to be meaningful. By discussing the content of the books read to them, they are able to derive meaning from the spoken, as well as the written word. 4) The teacher serves as a role model for communication in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. 5) Communication is seen and accepted as a whole. At the same time, children are accepted as readers and writers. The teacher recognizes the various stages of literacy development that children exhibit and guides them as they refine their reading and writing to more closely approximate adult standards. 6) This brings us to the last key element, "attitude of expectancy" (p. 12). The same way that parents expect their children to listen and talk, the whole language teacher expects all children to read and write, all the while recognizing the various stages of emergent literacy.

Research on Questioning

The use of questions in the classroom is not only an inexpensive educational tool but also a valuable device for assessing the student's understanding of the concepts being taught. Research tells us that teachers do use questions as a teaching technique and furthermore much of the instructional time is spent on answering teachers' questions. According to Bromley (1988) teachers ask seventy questions, on an average, within a thirty minute lesson but seventy-five percent of the questions asked call for literal or factual information. Students need to practice answering questions that go beyond literal information (Bromley, 1988; Donaldson, 1978) but teachers need to ask students questions that require critical thinking (Alexander, 1988).

Questions can be used for many purposes. Groisser (1964) proposes eight functions that they may serve. His purposes and functions of questions are of a generic nature and may be applied to any lesson or discipline and while it can be said that every discipline makes use of questioning as a teaching technique,

reading uses questioning strategies extensively. The strategies include the Question-Answer Relationship Strategy (QAR) (Raphael, 1982); the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) (Vacca & Vacca, 1986); the Inferential Strategy (Hansen, 1981); the Guided Reading Procedure (GRP) (Manzo, 1969); and Radio Reading (Vacca & Vacca, 1986). In addition, efforts to develop question taxonomies that describe the different types of questions and purposes they achieve are ongoing (Sanders, 1966; Herber, 1970; Pearson & Johnson, 1978; Raphael, 1982; Goodman et al., 1987; Ada, 1988).

Basically, questions as an educational tool are important for the teacher to use because they permit students to become actively involved in the learning process rather than be passive recipients of knowledge. Since questions account for much of the teacher-learner dialogue, it follows that teachers need to know how to ask questions, why they are asking them, and understand the kinds of responses that students might give. Without this, teachers will continue to ask mostly literal-level questions. Understanding how questions may be asked, the types, and the students' answers should assist not only the teacher but also the students.

Ten Questioning Techniques for Developing Language and Thought Process

Ten question types for developing language and thought process will follow. Each will illustrate a different type of question and offer possible student answers. Neither the questions nor the student answers are meant to provide a question/answer hierarchy but rather to illustrate the types of questions that teachers/parents may ask and the types of responses students may give. In order to facilitate the student's language development and promote critical thinking skills, teachers need to recognize the different types of questions, as well as anticipate the kinds of student responses that will be elicited. Second language students may initially respond with one-word answers or responses that incorporate information from the teacher's question, so the teacher will need to help the students move beyond these kinds of responses by asking other types of questions. The different questions illustrate how a teacher may lead students to use and develop language through the discussion of a story. The book used to illustrate the questions is Tyrone, the Horrible by Hans Wilhelm.

1. YES/NO Questions. These are the easiest to answer since the answer is included in the question. There is also a fifty percent chance that students will answer the questions correctly.

a. Was Boland a little dinosaur?
Was Boland a little elephant?
Possible answers: Yes.
No.
Yes, he was a little dinosaur.
No, he wasn't a little elephant. He was a dinosaur.

"*He was a dinosaur,*" clarifies the answer and confirms that the student comprehends the question by recalling the information from the story.

b. Did he live with his mother and his father?

Observe the use of the auxiliary verb *did* in the question which calls for the present tense of the verb *live*. In the extended student answer not using *did* in the sentence, there is a need for the student to know how to use the past tense form *lived*.

Possible answers:
Yes.
No.
Yes, he did.
No, he didn't.
Yes, he lived with his mother and his father.
Yes, he lived with them.
No, he didn't live with his mother and his father.
No, he didn't live with them.

The use of the emphatic can also be included: Yes, he did live with them.

2. OR Questions. Again, the answer is included in the question but now the student is required to make a choice.

Did Boland play or fight with the other dinosaur children?

Irregular verbs will come in easily and again the structure with *did* will need to be emphasized with some students.

Possible answers:
He played.
He fought.
He played with them
He fought with them.
He didn't fight with them; he played with them.
He didn't play with them; he fought with them.

It is possible to practice the present tense form *does* with these same questions. Then it will be necessary to notice that the answer will call for a change in the third person singular verb.

Does Boland play or fight with the other dinosaur children?
Possible answers:
He plays with the other dinosaur children.
He fights with them.

However, it is important to note that if *does* is included in the negation, then the *s* is no longer employed with the main verb.

Possible answer: He **doesn't** fight. He plays with them.

3. SHORT ANSWER Questions. These are questions which usually begin with: **who, where, when, what.** In these the child needs to recall story information, but the answer is not in the question. *What, who,* and *where* questions will elicit different types of noun answers: things, persons, places, respectively, while *when* questions will call for an adverb. Here it is important to note that the student needs to be able to identify what is being asked about specifically. The signal is in the question word. The skill is to differentiate between the key question words.

What was Boland?
Who did he live with?
Where did he live?
When did he live?
Possible answers: Boland was a *dinosaur*.

He lived with *his mother and father.*
He lived in a *swamp forest.*
He lived *long ago.*

Notice that these answers ask for a combination transformation and completion from the students and even though they can answer with one word or a phrase, they should be encouraged to use extended language or complete sentence responses.

4. THOUGHT Questions. These questions usually start with **how** or **why**. The students need to process information, express their own thoughts, and demonstrate comprehension of what was read.

Why was Tyrone called Tyrone the horrible?
How does a bully act?
Possible answers: He was called Tyrone the horrible because ...
A bully ...

Thought questions lend themselves to a variety of interpretations. "Does bigger and stronger make a bully?" All the answers may be considered correct but when there is doubt that the student has fully thought through the answer, rather than saying the answer is not correct, the teacher should ask the student to clarify or support the answer. "Why do you think that ...?"

Thought questions serve two additional functions. 1) They lend themselves to bringing in traditional sayings or morals, such as, "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you." 2) They provide a way to relate specifically to the student's own experiences.

How does the one being bullied feel?
Have you ever been a bully? How did you feel as a bully?
Have you ever been bullied? How did you feel? How do you think the bully felt when he was bullying you?

5. SERIES RECALL Questions. These questions ask the child to remember a number of facts from the story which were *just* stated. Instead of asking the students to recall discrete or isolated facts as simple recall questions do, they are asked to relate a series of events which may be found in a paragraph or over several pages of the story.

Do you remember three things Tyrone did to Boland?
Possible answers: First he ...
Then he ... (or Next he ... or Second he ...)
Finally he ... (or Last he ... or Third he ...)

If the students have difficulty recalling the events, ask them to close their eyes and try to picture what happened. An extension of this can be to have the students tell, draw, or write about a process which they undertook.

6. DESCRIPTION Questions. The students are asked to verbally describe what was read or what was seen. This helps them develop the ability to use adjectives and adverbs. It provides an excellent opportunity for the teacher to use webbing and provide the written words for them to visualize and read.

What did Tyrone look like?
Can you tell me about Tyrone? What was he like? How did he act?
Possible answers: He was big and ugly, etc.

An extension might include having the student draw various characters with lines drawn to words describing them.

7. WHY and HOW Questions related to the child. After asking about the event in the story, the next question is directed to the child's own life or reaction. These questions may ask the student to draw a conclusion, empathize, relate a personal experience, and/or reflect on past actions.

"Why did Boland have a *difficult* time sleeping?" Note the change of word; the story uses *hard*. In order to extend the student's vocabulary, it helps to use *synonyms* as well as to introduce *antonyms* and to discuss *homonyms*.

How would you feel if Tyrone was bullying you?

What would you do?

Have you ever had someone do that to you?

Do you ever have a hard time sleeping? Why?

As an extension the students could draw their own story and write it to the best of their ability. This provides the teacher with valuable input on the skills the students have mastered and those areas needing additional practice.

8. RECALLING A SERIES IN CORRECT ORDER. This could be a series of events which are spread out over the story or within an extended context, several paragraphs.

Let's see if we can remember how Boland tried to solve his problem.

9. RETELLING THE STORY. The students may go through the book telling the story in their own words. Recalling the story characters and sequencing the events by paraphrasing permit them to engage in connected discourse in a meaningful way.

Can you tell me the story in your own words?

10. CHANGING THE STORY. The child may decide to change some parts or characters or events. Creative thinking, synthesizing, and evaluating are necessary skills for the student to employ in answering this type of question.

What if Boland became the bully?

Language Structures & Functions Elicited Through Questions

The discussion that follows is offered to assist in understanding the language structures and functions that the questions elicit. These are not intended for the parents. Parents do not need to understand these in order to use the questioning techniques. They are provided for the teacher to illustrate how questions may be used to help students develop their language and thinking skills.

1. YES/NO Questions. Even though students may respond with a simple yes or no, they should be encouraged to incorporate the information from the question into their answers. To do this requires the student to move the information and make what is called a movement transformation (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983). By replacing the proper noun, Boland, with the pronoun he, the student makes a substitution transformation (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983). When the teacher asks if Boland was an elephant, she checks on the student's recall of a story character and provides an opportunity for the student to use the negative participle NOT, or its contracted and suffixed form, -N'T.

2. OR Questions. The past tense of the auxiliary verb DO is used in the OR questions, calling for the use of past tense verbs in the answers. The student is given the opportunity to practice using regular and irregular past tense verbs.

3. SHORT ANSWER Questions. The student continues using transformations in the answers but must now supply additional information to complete the response.
4. THOUGHT Questions. These questions can ask the student to draw a conclusion from the story information or offer an explanatory or predictive inference.
5. SERIES RECALL Questions. The student is asked to organize explicitly stated information from a limited context, e.g., a paragraph, of the story in a sequential manner.
6. DESCRIPTION Questions. A description requires the student to recall specific characteristics or qualities of a character or an event.
7. WHY and HOW Questions related to the child. By relating the story information to his own experiences, the student is able to understand the story from a personal perspective.
8. RECALLING A SERIES IN CORRECT ORDER. This question differs significantly from the Series Recall question, since it asks for information revealed throughout the story. Whereas a Series Recall question may be answered in one sentence, a Recalling a Series question requires connected discourse, a paragraph-type response.
9. RETELLING THE STORY. The language functions demonstrated by this type of question are similar to the previous type but differ in scope. Recalling a Series question will deal with only specific events from the story while retelling the story will span the entire book. This type of question, "Can you tell me the story in your own words," is important for another reason. It asks the child to recognize an indirect speech act. Although the question can be answered with a yes or no, either response would be inappropriate. The student is being asked to recall, organize, and state the significant events of the story.
10. CHANGING THE STORY. The student's creative use of language as well as critical thinking skills are needed in order to answer this type of question.

Relating Questioning Techniques to Parents and Second Language Learners

Parents are not expected to know the theories of learning that govern educational pedagogy or the language structures and functions that questioning techniques elicit, but they can be encouraged to interact with their children in a meaningful, positive way that facilitates the child's language development and promotes critical thinking. It is not unrealistic to provide them with a list of the questions and the student's answers, minus the explanation of the language structures and functions, and explain to them how they can ask different questions while they read to their child. One of the governing principles of whole language identified by Weaver (1991) states, "to foster emergent reading and writing in particular, whole language teachers attempt to replicate the strategies parents use successfully to stimulate the acquisition of language and the 'natural' acquisition of literacy" (p. 23). Parents can be helped to see that they already know how to stimulate their child and the same way that perfection is not expected from their child, it is not expected from them. The goal is to read with the child and ask questions to promote language and critical thinking.

To explain some concerns or issues related to how parents may use these questioning techniques and how they relate to second language learners, a question and answer format will be used.

How do parents know when to move on to the next level of question? The questions are not arranged in a hierarchy, but as they might be asked based on the story information as it appears in the book. To impose an orderly, linear, hierarchical sequence to the questions would violate whole language philosophy. Rather, the parent, as well as the teacher, ask the questions naturally in a conversational manner. If the child cannot answer the question, the parent/teacher may supply the answer in a non-threatening or non-judgmental fashion.

How many questions at each level are "enough"? This would be like asking, "How do you know when an infant is full when you're feeding him?" You know because the child lets you know. If the child is frustrated or confused, you try a different type of question. The key is to permit the child to experience success while developing his ability. Some stimulation is necessary for growth but too much results in frustration.

Should the questions be asked during or after reading? Questions should be asked as needed to approximate the natural acquisition of literacy fostered by parents when they interact with their child. Questions should not interrupt the story sequence but enhance a natural social interaction between the parent/teacher and the child. Some questions are best asked after the story is read and others during the reading.

What if the parent or teacher asks a question in one language and the student responds in another? "This language [the child's first language] has been so well learned that no conscious effort is involved in its use. It is deeply internalized. Children's language is as much a part of them as their own skin. Rejection of children's language may be more deeply disturbing than rejection of their skin color. The latter is only an insult, the former strikes at their ability to communicate and express their needs, feelings -their selves" (Goodman & Goodman, 1991, p. 85).

Should the child's dialect be allowed in the process? "For whole language teachers what is important is that each dialect is a bona fide language system. Speakers of low-status dialects do not speak standard English poorly; they speak their home dialects well. Teacher need to be well aware of this fact in daily instruction ...*Whole* language implies celebrating language in all its variety. We start in whole language, as Dewey advised, where the child is. The goal is never to reject one language form and replace it with another. Rather, the goal is to expand on the base of the home dialect and to support learners as they add other dialects and registers to their repertoire" (Goodman & Goodman, 1991, p. 83).

When, how, or should the child be allowed to ask questions and the adult respond? It is important for the child to be allowed to ask questions. "Asking questions is a form of making predictions ... predicting is critical to comprehension ... much of the research supports the idea that children who are good questioners are also good comprehenders" (Bromley, 1988, p. 113).

How does one use the first and/or second language when using these questions? A guiding principle of whole language is on "meaning." Assuming the teacher knows the child's native language, she should use the first language

as needed to convey meaning, all the while helping the child develop communicative competence in English.

Should the book be read first in one language or another? When should the book be read in the other language? If the classroom is bilingual or if the teacher is bilingual, the teacher can choose when the book will be read in the first language. Usually in a bilingual classroom, the curriculum dictates when language arts is provided in the first language and in English. If the classroom is not a bilingual classroom but the teacher is bilingual, the decision should be based on the student's familiarly with the concepts in the first language. Whole language recognizes the importance of building on what the child knows and that the child knows more than most realize or acknowledge. In addition, literacy in the first language transfer to the second. "Once literacy is developed in the first language, the development of literacy in the second language comes much more easily" (Krashen, 1991, p. 86). Lower-level literacy, the ability to read in the first language, transfers to the second language while higher-level literacy, problem solving, need not be re-learned in the second language.

If the teacher is not bilingual, the parents will be the ones to introduce the book in the first language. Whole language philosophy strongly believes in involving the parents, both at school and at home.

Conclusions

Merely using a questioning strategy does not make a lesson whole language-based. Questioning techniques are used extensively by teachers at each level in all disciplines. Whole language instruction is more than one technique; it is rooted in an instructional program that encompasses every activity, every student, every parent and recognizes that teaching skills in isolation is as detrimental to the instructional program as not recognizing the knowledge that each child brings to the classroom. The questioning techniques are provided as one tool to be used as part of a total instructional program, a program which assumes a holistic approach to language, teaching, and learning.

All of these questioning techniques lend themselves to extended activities using drawings and writing in either a journal or notebook. The atmosphere for the story reading and the questioning techniques should be warm and conducive to learning in a relaxed non-threatening manner. Application of the skills should be encouraged in other activities. Progress should be monitored in order to keep the interaction stimulating. And last but not least, it is important to provide parents with the techniques in their own language to be used with books which will foster the development of the child's primary language.

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APPENDIX
DIEZ TÉCNICAS INTERROGATIVAS PARA EL DESARROLLO DEL LENGUAGE Y DEL PENSAMIENTO

1. Preguntas contestadas con SÍ/NO. Estas son las preguntas más fáciles de contestar ya que la respuesta está en la pregunta. También existe una probabilidad de contestar correctamente 50% del tiempo.

a. ¿Era Boland un pequeño dinosauro?
¿Era Boland un pequeño elefante?
Respuestas posibles: Sí.
No.
Sí, él era un pequeño dinosauro.
No, él no era un pequeño elefante. Él era un dinosauro.

b. ¿Vivía él con su mamá y su papá?
Respuestas posibles: Sí.
No.
Sí vivía.
No vivía.
Sí, él vivía con su mamá y papá.
Sí, vivía con ellos.
No, él no vivía con su mamá y su papá.
No, él no vivía con ellos.

2. Preguntas de O. La respuesta otra vez se encuentra en la pregunta pero ahora existe una opción.
¿Jugaba o peleaba Boland con los otros pequeños dinosauros?
Respuestas posibles: Jugaba.
Peleaba.
Jugaba con ellos.
Peleaba con ellos.
No peleaba con ellos, jugaba con ellos.
No jugaba con ellos, peleaba con ellos.

3. Preguntas con RESPUESTAS CORTAS. Estas preguntas normalmente empiezan con: ¿Quién? ¿Dónde? ¿Cuándo? ¿Qué?. En estas el niño necesita recordar información. La respuesta no se encuentra en la pregunta.
¿Quién era Boland?
¿Con quién vivía?
¿Dónde vivía?
¿Cuándo vivió?
Respuestas posibles: Boland era un dinosauro.
Boland vivía con su mamá y su papá.
Vivía en un bosque pantanoso.
Vivió hace mucho tiempo.

4. Preguntas que requieren PENSAMIENTO. Estas preguntas normalmente empiezan con cómo o por qué. El niño necesita procesar información y expresar sus propios pensamients o su comprensión de lo que fue leído.
¿Por qué le llamaban a Tyrone, Tyrone el Horrible?

¿Cómo actúa un peleonero?
Respuestas posibles: Le llamaban Tyrone el Horrible porque ...
Un peleonero ...

5. Preguntas de RECORDAR UNA SERIE. El niño necesita poder recordar varios datos los cuales acaban de ser presentados.
¿Recuerdas las tres cosas que le hizo Tyrone a Boland?
Respuestas posibles: Primero él ...
Luego él ... (o En seguida él ... o Segundo él ...)
Finalmente él ... (o Por último él ... or Tercero él ...)

6. Preguntas de DESCRIPCIÓN. El niño debe describir verbalmente lo que fue leído o visto.
¿Qué apariencia tenía Tyrone?
¿Me puedes platicar sobre Tyrone? ¿Cómo era? ¿Cómo actuaba?
Respuestas posibles: Él era grande y feo ...

7. Preguntas de ¿POR QUÉ? y ¿CÓMO? relacionadas al niño. Después de preguntar sobre un evento en el cuento, la siguiente pregunta se dirije a la vida o reacción del niño.
¿Por qué tenía Boland dificultad en dormir?
¿Cómo te sentirías si Tyrone estuviera peleando contigo?
¿Qué harías?
¿Alguna vez has tenido a alguien que te ha tratado así?
¿Has tenido dificultad durmiendo a veces? ¿Por qué?

8. RECORDANDO UNA SERIE EN EL ORDEN CORRECTO. Estas pueden ser series de eventos que occuren a través del cuento. Vamos a ver si podemos recordar como trató Boland de resolver sus problemas.

9. CONTANDO EL CUENTO DE NUEVO. El niño puede repasar el libro contando el cuento en sus propias palabras.

10. CAMBIANDO EL CUENTO. El niño puede decidir cambiar algunas partes o eventos del cuento.
¿Y qué pasaría si Boland se convierte en un peleonero?